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**Soil bacterial community structure and functional responses across a long-term mineral
phosphorus fertilisation gradient differ in grazed and cut grasslands.**

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23 Abstract

24 Grasslands form a significant proportion of land used across the globe and their future
25 management is important. The objective of this study was to compare the long-term impact
26 of inorganic phosphorus (Pi) fertilisation rates (P0, P15 and P30 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) under two grass
27 management trials (grazed vs. cut and removed) on soil physicochemical properties,
28 microbial biomass, phosphomonoesterase activity, bacterial community structure and
29 abundance of a phosphorus (P) mineralising gene (*phoD*). Under grazing, microbial biomass
30 and soil phosphorus concentrations (total and Pi) generally increased with Pi fertilisation
31 rate, accompanied by significant differences in bacterial community structure between
32 unfertilised (P0) and P30 soil. At the cut and removed site, although Pi was significantly
33 greater in P30 soil, P concentrations (total and Pi) did not increase to the same extent as for
34 grazing, with microbial biomass and bacterial community structures unresponsive to Pi
35 fertilisation. Despite differences in soil P concentrations (total and Pi) and microbial biomass
36 between sites, the abundance of bacterial *phoD* increased with increasing soil Pi across
37 both, while phosphomonoesterase activity decreased. Amplicon sequencing revealed
38 significant differences in relative abundances of bacterial genera at the grazed site only.
39 Despite this, Acidobacteria were the dominant bacterial phylum across both grasslands. The
40 relative abundance of bacterial genera *Gp6* and *Gp16* increased significantly with Pi
41 fertilisation under grazing, while *Bradyrhizobium*, as well as unclassified genus-type groups
42 belonging to *Actinobacteria* and *Acidimicrobiales* significantly decreased with Pi fertilisation,
43 suggesting potential roles in P mobilisation when soil Pi concentrations are low. This study
44 highlights the importance of long-term Pi fertilisation rates and aboveground vegetation
45 removal in shaping soil bacterial community structure and microbial biomass, which in turn
46 may impact soil fertility and plant productivity within agricultural soils.

47 **Keywords:** *agricultural management; bacteria; grassland; phosphorus; soil*

48 *DW – dry weight, Pi – inorganic phosphorus, Soil WHC – soil water holding capacity*

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1. Introduction

Grasslands are the second largest terrestrial biome on the planet, comprising 37% of available soil (excluding Antarctica and Greenland) (FAO, 2010; O'Mara, 2012). They provide key services such as the production of food crops and meat. They contribute to the provision of clean water and flood prevention and are essential for carbon sequestration (FAO, 2015). With the current world population of 7.6 billion projected to reach 9.8 billion by 2050 (UN, 2017), there is considerable focus on improving productivity from grasslands to ensure food security. The management of grasslands has steadily intensified across Europe (Isselstein et al., 2005) and typically involves combinations of increased fertilisation, sward cutting (Lemanski and Scheu, 2015) and grazing (Shange et al., 2012; de Vries et al., 2015).

The efficient and sustainable fertilisation of agricultural soils is a significant challenge, and until alternative methods match productivity levels, additions of mineral fertilisers to soil will remain necessary (Tilman et al., 2002). Mineral/inorganic phosphorus (Pi) fertilisation is a particular concern for agriculture, as the main resource in Pi fertiliser production is finite (Richardson and Simpson, 2011; Simpson et al., 2011). As demand increases and stocks deplete, considerable interest has focussed on improving phosphorus (P) use efficiency within agriculture (Gorazda et al., 2013; Sharma et al., 2013; Dotaniya and Meena, 2014).

Water soluble inorganic phosphorus (Pi) is the primary form in which plants and microorganisms take up P. Organic P is however the dominant form in temperate grassland soils (Liebisch et al., 2014; Stutter, 2015), ranging between 20-80% of the total soil P (Sharma et al., 2013). The high reactivity of phosphate ions in soil means concentrations of Pi available for uptake are generally low, at less than 1% of the total P (Sims and Sharpley,

2005; Sharma et al., 2013), often resulting in P as the growth limiting nutrient for plants (Sharma et al., 2013). To compensate for this, over-fertilisation was common practice. A need to reduce pollution however led to European legislation (COM 91/676/EEC, 1991; COM 2000/60/EC, 2000) that now regulates fertilisation rates across Europe. This has boosted efforts to find alternative methods for increasing concentrations of available Pi in soil.

Microorganisms are key drivers of P cycling within the terrestrial environment. The mechanisms used can be broadly classified as inorganic P solubilisation, or organic P mineralisation. Microbial inorganic P solubilisation occurs primarily through release of organic anions which causes precipitated P-metal complexes to solubilise, releasing Pi (Osorio and Habte, 2013; Sharma et al., 2013). Bacteria capable of this mode of solubilisation include members of the *Pseudomonadaceae*, *Rhizobiaceae*, *Caulobacteraceae*, *Comamonadaceae*, *Burkholderiaceae*, *Enterobacteriaceae* within the Proteobacteria (Mander et al., 2012), and representatives of the phylum Actinobacteria (Mander et al., 2012; Wakelin et al., 2012). Organic P mineralisation is the breakdown of organic P compounds to eventually release of Pi. Within soil this is catalysed by a broad group of enzymes called phosphatases, with phosphomonoesterases (EC 3.13.2) particularly important as they hydrolyse monoester bonds to release Pi. Microbial phosphate mineralisation has been observed by organisms belonging to α - and γ - *Proteobacteria*, the *Actinobacteria* (Tan et al., 2013), *Actinomycetales*, *Bacilliales*, *Gloeobacterales*, *Planctomycetales* and *Rhizobiales* (Ragot et al., 2016). In addition, some microorganisms improve plant P uptake indirectly by modifying root systems and forming symbioses with plants (Richardson and Simpson, 2011).

Understanding how soil microorganisms respond to Pi fertilisation within agricultural systems could develop fertiliser regimes less reliant upon Pi fertiliser inputs (Owen et al.,

2015). However, the complexity of P cycling pathways means studies focussing on microbial P cycling have lagged behind those of carbon (C) and nitrogen (N). Molecular biomarkers to target microbial groups associated with P cycling typically focus on organic P mineralisation and phosphatases (Kageyama et al., 2011; Tan et al., 2013; Fraser et al., 2015; Acuña et al., 2016; Ragot et al., 2016), with many studies targeting bacterial alkaline phosphatases (Fraser et al., 2015; Chhabra et al., 2013; Tan et al., 2013). Three gene families encode for bacterial alkaline phosphatases (*phoD*, *phoX* and *phoA*). Although all three families have been identified in environmental samples, *phoD* has been found to dominate metagenomic datasets from soil environments (Tan et al., 2013). To-date most research on microbial P cycling has focussed on aquatic environments, with *phoD* being the most common biomarker. Although there are a number of studies profiling soil microbial responses to a variety of P fertilisation treatments across a range of management scenarios (Azziz et al., 2012; Osorio and Habte, 2013; Sharma et al., 2013; Tan et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2014), most have used exaggerated application rates (Wakelin et al., 2012), compared inorganic and organic P amendments (Fraser et al., 2015), compared single P_i rates to unfertilised controls, or use combined N and P regimes (Ragot et al., 2016). Comparisons across P_i fertilisation gradients typical for rain fed temperate grasslands are lacking.

Land management practices other than fertilisation have been shown to impact nutrient levels in soil (Jangid et al., 2008; Keith et al., 2012; Neal et al., 2017). Although grazing and cutting both remove aboveground vegetation, grazing generates a significant pathway of nutrient re-introduction belowground that cutting and removing vegetation does not. Most N and P ingested by grazing mammals is returned to soil via excreta (Parson et al., 2013). For N and P, this can equate to 65 N kg yr⁻¹ and 13 P kg yr⁻¹ for a mature cow (EU, 2014), whereas 30% of ingested C is returned to soil this way (70% is lost via CO₂ and

CH₄ production) (Parson et al., 2013). The effects of cutting and removing aboveground vegetation is relatively understudied in grassland systems compared to other aboveground grassland management approaches (Poeplau et al., 2016). Lower rates of C sequestration have been observed in cut and removed systems compared to grazing (Fitter et al., 1997; Hungate et al., 1997; Nitschelm et al., 1997), but grazing effects on soil organic C within grassland soils can vary depending on context (McSherry and Ritchie, 2013; Abdalla et al., 2018). Considering the importance of grazing, cutting and fertilisation regimes in grassland management, an understanding of how the soil environment responds to combined long-term management is unclear.

The aim of the current study was to determine the effect of long-term Pi fertilisation on soil properties and specifically bacterial communities in two adjacent grassland soils which differed in terms of aboveground management (grazed vs. cut and removed). The grazed site (G) was rotationally grazed by cattle, whilst the cut and removed site (C) had the aboveground vegetation removed. Both sites had a long history of defined Pi fertilisation, receiving one of the following applications of calcium superphosphate: unfertilised (P0), 15 (P15) or 30 (P30) kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. At the time of sampling, the grazed trial had been established for 45 years, and the cut trial for 18 years. Soil physicochemical properties, microbial biomass, phosphomonoesterase activity, bacterial community structure and bacterial *phoD* copy numbers were examined at both sites to determine if Pi fertilisation rate would increase soil P (Pi and total P), microbial biomass and potential P cycling ability, as well as harbour different bacterial community structures in a similar manner under both aboveground regimes.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Site descriptions

Both grassland field sites are located in Co. Wexford, Ireland: grazed 52°16'N, 06°30'W (Tunney et al., 2010) and cut 52°17'N, 06°30'W (Daly and Casey, 2006).

Grazed site (G) - A detailed description of the grazed site has been previously published (Culleton et al., 2002; King-Salter. 2008; Griffiths et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2014). Established in 1968 on a Humic Gleysol soil (IUSS WRB, 2015), the soil was initially sown with *Lolium perenne* and divided into thirty-six 0.45 ha plots, twelve per Pi fertilisation rate (G-P0, G-P15, G-P30 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), along with N (ammonium nitrate 250 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and K (potassium chloride 20 kg ha⁻¹). After 1999, a consistent grazing stocking rate was applied (3,300 kg stock ha⁻¹) and Pi fertilisation rates were altered to assess recovery responses to Pi fertilisation (SI Fig 1). No legacy effect due to previous variation in stocking rates was detected across the site (Tunney et al., 2010). For the purpose of this study, only plots receiving continual Pi applications of 0 (G-P0), 15 (G-P15) or 30 (G-P30) kg Pi ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ since 1968 were sampled (SI Fig 1).

Cut and removed site (C) - The cut site was established in February 1995 on a loam textured soil and divided into sixteen plots (10 x 2 m) in a fully randomised block design (Massey et al., 2012) (SI Fig 2). Each Pi treatment had four replicate plots receiving 16% superphosphate at fertilisation rates of 0 (C-P0), 15 (C-P15), 30 (C-P30) and 45 (P-45) kg Pi ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ each February. Only plots receiving 0 (C-P0), 15 (C-P15) and 30 (C-P30) kg Pi ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ were sampled to relate to the grazed site. Aboveground plant biomass at this site was cut eight times per year to a height of 5/6 cm using a plot harvester (Massey et al., 2015). All cuttings

were removed and sampled for dry matter yield and total plant P content. After each harvest, all plots received N (calcium ammonium nitrate, 40 kg N ha⁻¹) and K (potassium chloride, 125 kg K ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), at rates to compensate for the removal of these nutrients by harvesting.

2.2 Sample collection

In October 2013, three plots per Pi fertilisation treatment (P0, P15 or P30) were sampled at both sites. For each of the eighteen plots sampled, a composite sample was made using a Dutch auger (4 cm diameter) by sieving (<2 mm). Sub-samples were stored at -20 °C for molecular analysis, with the remainder stored at 4 °C and processed for biochemical and physicochemical characterisation.

Total soil C and N were determined using an elemental analyser (LECO TrueSpec CN elemental analyser, US) from 0.2 g of ball milled soil dried at 40 °C for 48 h as described by Griffiths et al., (2012). Total soil P was determined using microwave digestion (EPA, 2007) and measured via inductively coupled plasma (ICP) optical emission spectroscopy from 0.5 g of ball milled soil dried at 40 °C for 48 h. Available Pi was determined using the Morgan's extraction method (McCormack, 2002), as described by Massey et al., (2012) and measured spectrophotometrically at 880 nm using the phosphomolybdate method (Murphy and Riley, 1962); inorganic N fractions within soil were determined by 2M potassium chloride extraction (Mulvaney, 1996) and analysed for NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ by colorimetric analysis using an Aquakem 600A (Konelab 60, US).

Soil pH was determined using a soil: deionised water ratio of 1:2 (w/v) (McCormack, 2002) measured using a WTW pH526 pH meter (Labsource, US); 5 g of soil was oven dried at 105 °C for 24 h to determine the moisture content; soil water holding capacity (WHC) was

210 determined from 50 g of fresh soil placed into a Haines funnel with 100 ml deionised water
211 added to the soil and covered. After 24 h water was drained for 30 min and the volume
212 collected (Jenkinson and Powlson, 1976). Soil textural analysis was conducted following the
213 methodology by Culleton (1972).

214 **2.3 Microbial biomass**

215 Microbial biomass C, N (Murphy and Riley, 1962) and P (Brookes et al., 1982) were
216 measured using chloroform-fumigation extraction methods. Within the microbial biomass,
217 total organic carbon (TOC) was measured by combustion (Baird, 2005) using a Shimadzu
218 TOC-VCPH analyser with ASI-V autosampler; total organic nitrogen (TON) was determined by
219 alkaline persulfate oxidation (Cabrera and Beare, 1993) and available Pi by the ammonium
220 molybdate-ascorbic acid method (Watanabe and Olsen, 1965) using a Cary 50 Cone-UV
221 spectrophotometer. Soil microbial biomass C, N and P were calculated as the difference
222 between the fumigated and un-fumigated samples using conversion factors of 0.45 for C
223 (Wu et al., 1990), 0.45 for N (Jenkinson et al., 2004) and 0.40 for P (Hedley and Stewart,
224 1982). DOC and DON can both be calculated when determining the microbial biomass as the
225 amount of C and N in un-fumigated samples (Griffiths et al., 2012).

226 **2.4 Acid phosphomonoesterase activity**

227 Acid phosphomonoesterase (EC 3.13.2) activity was determined using a modified method of
228 Tabatabai and Bremner (1969), with toluene step removed. Optical density of the
229 supernatant was measured at 400 nm using a spectrophotometer (Helios Unicam).
230 Phosphomonoesterase activity was calculated with respect to standard curves constructed
231 using known concentrations of p-nitrophenol and expressed as $\mu\text{g PNP g}^{-1} \text{ DW soil h}^{-1}$.

2.5 Soil DNA extraction

DNA was extracted from 0.5 g of soil in triplicate per plot using a modified version of the method published by Griffiths et al., (2000) (Storey et al., 2014). Extracts were quantified and quality checked using a Nanodrop ND-1000 Spectrophotometer (ThermoFisher, UK) and further cleaned using High Pure PCR product purification kit (Roche, UK) to ensure maximal removal of PCR inhibitors.

2.6 Amplicon sequencing of bacterial community

Next generation sequencing of the bacterial *16S rRNA* gene was performed using a modified protocol of Kozich et al., (2013). The forward (5'-TATGGTAATTGTGTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA-3') and reverse (5'-AGTCAGTCAGCCGGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT-3') primers which were previously ligated with unique index combinations (Integrated DNA Technologies, USA): A501-A508 and A707, A708 and A709 were used for sequencing. Primers for PCR were reconstituted to 100 µM prior to use. PCR was performed in 96 well plates containing 17 µl of Accuprime Pfx Supermix (Invitrogen, UK), 1 µl target DNA, 2 µl of each primer set. 1 µl of PCR grade water was used as a negative control in place of target DNA. PCR conditions consisted of a hot start of 95°C for 2 min, followed by 95°C for 20 sec, 55°C for 15 sec and 72°C for 5 min (30 cycles) with a final elongation of 72°C for 10 min. PCR products were visualised on a 1% (w/v) agarose gel (Roche Diagnostics, Ireland). PCR products were cleaned and normalised using the SequalPrep Normalization Plate kit (Invitrogen, UK) following manufacturer's instructions. Samples were quantified using a Qubit™ 3.0 Fluorometer (ThermoFisher, UK) and quality checked using a Nanodrop ND-1000 Spectrophotometer (ThermoFisher, UK). Sequencing was carried out by the Centre for Genomic Research, University of Liverpool using an

255 Illumina MiSeq system and a V2 Illumina reagent kit. Raw sequences generated were
256 processed using the Mothur software (v.1.34) (Schloss et al., 2009). Illumina adapter
257 sequences were trimmed by cutadapt ver.2.1.1 using option -O 3. Quality filtering using
258 Sickle ver.1.2 further trimmed the data with a quality score of ≥ 20 , followed by removal of
259 reads < 10 bp after trimming. Each read was then trimmed to a maximum of 275 bp and
260 ambiguous bases were removed. Sequences which contained homopolymer runs > 8 bases
261 were discarded. After trimming, identical sequences were grouped into 'unique' sequences.
262 Chimeric sequences were identified using the UCHIME algorithm within Mothur and were
263 then removed. From 2,395,612 contigs, 1,789,505 sequences were constructed and 419,890
264 unique sequences established. The number of chimeric sequences removed equated to
265 122,937. 195,731 sequences were then assigned to operational taxonomic units (OTUs) using
266 the 'cluster' command and the average neighbour algorithm. All subsequent OTU-based
267 analyses were performed using a cut-off of 0.03. Taxonomy was assigned to the aligned
268 sequences by comparing processed data to the silva databases for bacteria (arb-
269 silva.de/silva-license-information). At the grazed site the average number of sequences per
270 sample equated to $27,020 \pm 3,465$ standard errors of the mean. For the cut and removed
271 site, the average number of sequences per sample equated to $45,855 \pm 24,638$ standard
272 errors of the mean. Rarefaction curves detailing the depth of sampling intensity showed
273 that for all treatments curves were well saturated (SI Fig 3). The final bacterial dataset was
274 then generated based on the relative abundances of bacterial genera. The average relative
275 abundance within each biological replicate was calculated according to the rules outlined by
276 Dunbar et al., (2001) i.e. a genus/genus-type had to be present in at least 2 technical
277 replicates (there were 3 technical replicates run for each biological replicate) to be
278 considered. The relative abundance was first averaged across the technical replicates and

279 this data was used to calculate relative abundance in each biological replicate. To account
280 for differences in the number of sequencing reads between samples, samples were
281 normalised to the biological sample containing the lowest number of reads prior to analysis.
282 Bacterial genera/genus-type with relative abundances contributing to >0.1% of the total
283 abundance were included in the dataset. Sequence files associated with each sample have
284 been submitted to the European Nucleotide Archive (<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena>), under
285 accession number PRJEB21592.

286 **2.7 Quantification of bacterial *phoD* gene**

287 Real-time PCR (qPCR) was used to quantify copy numbers of the bacterial *phoD* gene from a
288 standard curve constructed using plasmid from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PA0 (Fraser et al.,
289 2015), using primer set ALPS-F730 (5'-CAGTGGGACGACCACGA GGT-3') and ALPS-R1101 (5'-
290 GAGGCCGATCGGCATGTCTG-3') (Sigma, UK) (Sakurai et al., 2008). After running a serial
291 dilution on a sub-set of samples to test for inhibition, the *phoD* assay was performed (Fraser
292 et al., 2015). Each sample was run in triplicate, alongside standards and negative controls on
293 a ViiA7 qPCR instrument (Life Technologies, Ireland), in MicroAmp® optical 96-well reaction
294 plates. Each reaction contained 6.25 µL of 2 X KAPA SYBR® FAST qPCR master mix, 0.25 µL
295 ROX™ low passive reference dye (Anachem, Bedfordshire, UK), with 0.2 pmoles each primer
296 and 2 ng of DNA using software ViiA RUO Ver 1.2.4 Applied Biosystems software (Life
297 Technologies, Ireland) (Storey et al., 2014). The efficiency of the reaction, determined from
298 the standard curve equated to 84% ($R^2 = 0.997$). The melt curve data confirmed no non-
299 specific amplification and no amplification in the negative controls.

2.8 Statistical analyses

All univariate data was analysed using Minitab v15 (Minitab Ltd). Residuals of the data were assessed for normal distribution using the Anderson-Darling normality test and Levene's test for homogeneity of variances as assumptions to be satisfied before performing parametric analyses. One-way ANOVAs were performed to test for an effect of Pi fertilisation rate across each site separately on soil physicochemical and microbial biomass data, bacterial richness scores and changes in relative abundance for the top 24 most abundant bacterial genera, bacterial *phoD* copy numbers and acid phosphomonoesterase activity.

Multivariate statistics were used to analyse bacterial community structure using the computer programme PRIMER-E version 6.1.9 with the PERMANOVA add-on version 1.0.1. The raw relative abundance data were transformed to the 4th root to down-weight highly abundant genera whilst recognising those at lower relative abundance (Clarke and Warwick, 2001). The similarity in community structure was determined by calculating Bray-Curtis coefficients between samples which generated a resemblance matrix for comparisons between complex multivariate biological samples to be made (Clarke et al., 2006). Bacterial communities were classified by site (grazed: G or cut: C) and further distinguished by Pi fertilisation rate (G-P0, G-P15, G-P30, C-P0, C-P15, C-P30). The bacterial dataset was tested for homogeneity of variances at the lowest level of factor combinations using the PermDisp function in PRIMER-E prior to further analysis.

The bacterial community structure for each Pi fertilisation treatment at both sites was visualised using Non-metric Multidimensional Scaling (NMDS). Differences between community structures exposed to different Pi fertilisation rates were tested by applying statistical permutation-based multivariate analysis of variance tests (PERMANOVA, Anderson, 2001), on the Bray-Curtis resemblance matrix and subsequent pair-wise

comparisons (Anderson et al., 2008). For the PERMANOVA test 9,999 permutations of the data were performed. Correlations between measured soil parameters were conducted to identify and remove covariates ($R^2 > 0.7$) (SI Table 1). This left 11 soil parameters: pH, moisture content (MC), soil C:P, soil C:N, DOC, Pi, NH_4^+ , microbial biomass C:N, N:P and C:P. BIO-ENV tests were performed to select parameters explaining a significant proportion of variation within the bacterial dataset (Clarke and Ainsworth, 1993; Anderson et al., 2008; Wakelin et al., 2012).

3. Results

3.1 Soil physicochemical properties

Soil physicochemical properties are shown in Table 1. Soil pH ranged from 5.39-5.77 at the grazed site and from 5.64-5.91 at the cut site. Clay content ($F=13.55$, $p=0.016$), soil pH ($F=7.84$, $p=0.019$) and water holding capacity ($F=13.72$, $p=0.014$) were significantly higher at the cut site compared to the grazed site. Under grazing, total soil P and Pi increased significantly with Pi fertilisation, with Pi concentrations increasing from $3.13 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ DW soil}$ in unfertilised (G-P0) plots to $20.83 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ DW soil}$ in the G-P30 soil ($F=7.56$, $p=0.042$). Total P significantly increased ($F=12.46$, $p=0.019$) in both fertilised plots (G-P15 and G-P30) compared to unfertilised (G-P0) soil (Table 1). Total soil C and N were unresponsive to long-term Pi fertilisation rates, along with DOC, DON and inorganic N ($\text{NO}_3^-/\text{NH}_4^+$) (Table 1). A strong correlation was found between a number of the variables ($R^2 > 0.7$ SI Table 1).

Long-term differences in Pi fertilisation at the cut and removed site resulted in a significantly higher concentration of Pi in C-P30 soil at $4.32 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ DW soil}$ compared to the unfertilised plot (C-P0) at $3.08 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ DW soil}$ and C-P15 soil at $2.67 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ DW soil}$ (Table

1). No other soil physicochemical parameter significantly differed across the cut and removed site (Table 1).

3.2 Soil microbial biomass C, N and P

Soil microbial biomass P and C increased with Pi fertilisation rate under grazing, and although a similar trend was observed for N, this was not significant (Fig 1). Microbial biomass P increased significantly with Pi fertilisation rate from 98.05 mg kg⁻¹ DW soil in unfertilised (G-P0) soil to 182.10 mg kg⁻¹ DW soil in G-P30 fertilised soil (F=7.43, p=0.024) (Fig 1a), mirroring the response of soil Pi (Table 1). Microbial biomass C (Fig 1b) mirrored the response of total soil P (Table 1), increasing significantly from 465.2 mg kg⁻¹ DW soil in unfertilised (G-P0) soil to 1,386.5 mg kg⁻¹ DW soil in G-P15 and 1,484.6 mg kg⁻¹ DW soil in G-P30 fertilised soil (F=13.17, p=0.006), but not significantly between G-P15 and G-P30 treatments (Fig 1b). At the cut and removed site, despite a significant difference in soil Pi concentrations between C-P0 and C-P30 (Table 1), microbial biomass C, P and N remained constant across the three Pi treatments (Fig 1).

3.3 Acid phosphomonoesterase activity

At the grazed site, phosphomonoesterase activity was significantly (F=6.44, p=0.032) higher in unfertilised (G-P0) soil compared to fertilised soil (G-P15 and G-P30 (Fig 2). A similar trend was observed at the cut and removed site, with activity significantly lower in the C-P30 soil (199.99 µg PNP g⁻¹ DW soil h⁻¹) and C-P15 or C-P0 soils (210.48 and 257.09 µg PNP g⁻¹ DW soil h⁻¹) compared to unfertilised (C-P0) soil (Fig 2).

3.3 Bacterial richness and community structure in soil exposed to long-term differences in Pi fertilisation rates

Across both the grazed and cut grassland sites, long-term differences in the Pi fertilisation rates did not result in significant differences in the richness of the bacterial communities (Table 2). However, the NMDS plot suggested differences in bacterial community structures at the grazed site exposed to different long-term Pi fertilisation, whereas no clear clustering appeared evident at the cut site (Fig 3).

PERMANOVA analysis confirmed bacterial community structure differed significantly ($p < 0.05$) in soil exposed to different Pi fertilisation rates at the grazed site. Pairwise testing confirmed a significant ($p < 0.001$) difference in bacterial community structure between G-P30 and unfertilised (G-P0) soil, with a proportion of the variation significantly explained by soil C:N and C:P ($Rho = 0.6$, $p = 0.03$).

Across the cut and removed grassland site, no significant differences were detected in bacterial community structure in response to long-term Pi fertilisation. The BIO-ENV test did not identify any soil parameters explaining a significant proportion of the variation within the bacterial dataset at this site.

3.4 Response of individual bacterial genera to long-term Pi fertilisation across grazed and cut and removed grassland sites

Amplicon sequencing revealed Acidobacteria to be the most relatively abundant phylum, with *Gp6* and *Gp16* both present within the top 3 most abundant genera at both sites (Table 3a and b). Significant differences in the relative abundances of the top 24 most abundant bacterial genera were detected between Pi fertilisation treatments at the grazed site, but not at the cut and removed site. Under grazing, the relative abundance of *Bradyrhizobium* ($F = 250.24$,

p=0.001) from the *α-Proteobacteria* was significantly higher in unfertilised (G-P0) soil compared to G-P15 and G-P30 soil. An unclassified genus-type group belonging to *Actinobacteria* (F=5.73, p=0.041) along with another unclassified genus-type group this time belonging to *Acidimicrobiales* (F=8.74, p=0.017) significantly decreased between unfertilised and P30 plots only. In contrast, the relative abundance of bacterial classes belonging to the phylum Acidobacteria showed positive responses to Pi fertilisation: *Gp6* (F=14.84, p=0.005) were relatively more abundant in fertilised (G-P15 and G-P30) compared to unfertilised (G-P0) soil, while *Gp16* (F=10.51, p=0.011) responded positively to higher Pi fertilisation (G-P30) compared to unfertilised (G-P0) soil and G-P15 soil (Table 3a).

3.5 Copy numbers of the bacterial phosphorus mineralising gene *phoD*

Under grazing, average copy numbers of the *phoD* gene increased significantly (F=6.03, p=0.037) from $5.1 \times 10^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ DW soil in unfertilised (G-P0) plots to $4.0 \times 10^4 \text{ g}^{-1}$ DW soil in G-P15 and $4.2 \times 10^4 \text{ g}^{-1}$ DW soil in G-P30 treatments, but did not differ significantly between G-P15 and G-P30 plots (Fig 4).

At the cut and removed site, copy numbers were significantly (F=49.91, p=0.001) higher in C-P30 plots at $4.7 \times 10^4 \text{ g}^{-1}$ DW soil compared to unfertilised (C-P0) at $2.4 \times 10^4 \text{ g}^{-1}$ DW soil and C-P15 plots at $1.3 \times 10^4 \text{ g}^{-1}$ DW soil (Fig 4).

412 4. Discussion

413 As expected, the long-term addition of calcium superphosphate increased soil Pi
414 concentrations at both sites (Griffiths et al., 2012; Massey et al., 2012). The extent of the
415 effect however, differed. Concentrations of Pi, although significantly higher in C-P30 plots at
416 the cut and removed site, were markedly lower than corresponding plots at the grazed site.
417 The insensitivity of soil microbial biomass at the cut and removed site is likely a
418 consequence of the lower availability of labile nutrients (i.e. $\text{NO}_2/\text{NO}_3^-$, DOC and Pi)
419 generally observed at this site compared to the grazed. Reasons for the differences between
420 sites however cannot be attributed solely to the difference in management as they are
421 confounded by differences in soil properties and specifically, a higher soil pH and clay
422 content at the cut site. Clay is particularly important as it can increase the capacity of
423 phosphate ions to bind to soil particles, reducing Pi availability and also stabilise microbial
424 biomass (Müller and Höper, 2004). Luckily, within each site confounding soil factors were
425 not an issue so the effect of Pi fertilisation rates on key soil parameters within site could be
426 assessed.

427 The effect of long-term differences in Pi fertilisation rate can contribute to
428 differences in vegetation composition (Cruz et al., 2009). Previous work at both sites
429 supports this. At the grazed site, unfertilised (G-P0) plots were dominated by poorer
430 grasses: Common Bent (*Agrostis capillaris*) and Yorkshire fog (*Holcus lanatas*), as opposed to
431 perennial ryegrass (*Lolium perenne*), cocksfoot (*Dactylis glomerata*), meadow grasses (*Poa*
432 spp.) and white clover (*Trifolium repens*) (King-Salter, 2008; Tunney et al., 2010). At the cut
433 and removed site, unfertilised (C-P0) plots were dominated by Bentgrass (*Agrostis genus*)
434 whereas perennial ryegrass (*Lolium perenne*) dominated the fertilised (C-P15 and C-P30)
435 plots (Massey et al., 2015). Whilst we cannot untangle the influences of vegetation

436 composition on the soil environment, here we consider it a direct result of the long-term Pi
437 treatments.

438
439 ***Bacterial community responses across a Pi fertilisation gradient in grazed and cut and***
440 ***removed grassland soils***

441 The effects of land-use on soil microbiota have been studied across a range of soil
442 environments including bare fallow, bog, forest and arable (Jangid et al., 2008; Keith et al.,
443 2012; Shange et al., 2012; Neal et al., 2017), but focus has mainly been on differences
444 between extremes and location, rather than agricultural land-use (Keith et al., 2012; Tardy
445 et al., 2015). Studies that have included fertilisation generally compare inorganic vs. organic
446 fertilisers, or combined N and P fertilisation vs. unfertilised controls (Lemanski et al., 2014).
447 The current study demonstrates that along a long-term Pi fertilisation gradient, distinctions
448 in bacterial community structures typically occur between unfertilised and Pi fertilised soil,
449 but also only when vegetation is grazed rather than cut and removed.

450 Despite the changes in bacterial community structure at the grazed site, no change
451 in richness was detected at either site. Microbial richness responses to land-use have been
452 varied (Keith et al., 2012; Tardy et al., 2015), suggesting it may not be an appropriate
453 indicator of microbial responses to agricultural management.

454 The top 24 most abundant bacterial genera were similar at the two grassland sites.
455 The overall acidity of the soils and similar long-term Pi fertilisation at both sites may have
456 facilitated the establishment of similar bacterial communities over time (Jangid et al., 2008).
457 The profiles of the soil bacteria are also consistent with other agricultural and grassland
458 studies (Jangid et al., 2008; Nacke et al., 2011; Mander et al., 2012; Tan et al., 2013; Luo et
459 al., 2015) suggesting a core bacterial microbiome. An unclassified genus-type belonging to

460 the order *Rhizobiales* was among the top 24 most relatively abundant genera at both sites;
 461 members of this order have been shown to harbour *phoD* (Ragot et al., 2016) and other P
 462 cycling genes (Bergkemper et al., 2016a). Significant differences in the individual relative
 463 abundances were however only detected under grazing: *Bradyrhizobium* - a common
 464 rhizosphere dwelling genus significantly decreased with Pi fertilisation between unfertilised
 465 (G-P0) and fertilised (G-P15 and G-P30) grazed soil. Although *Bradyrhizobium* is typically
 466 associated with N-fixation, higher relative abundances have been observed at low soil Pi
 467 concentrations and linked to improved plant performance (Tairo and Ndakidemi, 2013;
 468 Nyoki and Ndakidemi. 2014), and P mobilisation (Mander et al., 2012; Wakelin et al., 2012).
 469 One possible explanation is that N fixing organisms such as *Bradyrhizobium* invest N for
 470 production of N rich phosphatase enzymes (such as involved in P mineralisation) when soil P
 471 concentrations are low (Nastro et al. 2014). An unclassified genus-type belonging to
 472 *Actinobacteria* also responded negatively to Pi fertilisation, but in G-P30 plots only. The
 473 phylum Actinobacteria has been closely linked with P solubilisation in soil (Mander et al.,
 474 2012) and previously reported to respond negatively to Pi fertilisation (Wakelin et al., 2012).
 475 Conversely, the relative abundance of genera belonging to the phylum Acidobacteria
 476 responded positively to Pi fertilisation under grazing. Acidobacteria are estimated to
 477 comprise 20% of bacteria within grassland soils (Quaiser et al., 2003), dominated by the
 478 genera *Gp6* (Naether et al., 2012), *Gp4*, *Gp16* and *Gp7* (Will et al., 2010) as observed in this
 479 study. Acidobacteria have been suggested to be associated with oligotrophic environments
 480 due to their relatively slow growth (Jangid et al., 2008), however continual detection across
 481 a range of agricultural soils suggests ecological roles currently not understood (Nunes da
 482 Rocha et al., 2014). Previous work at the grazed site used in the current study reported a
 483 negative response of the Acidobacteria to Pi fertilisation (Tan et al., 2013). This discrepancy

may reflect the different sequencing approaches (Roche pyrosequencing vs. Illumina), and time of year samples were collected however.

Soils are dynamic systems which respond to changes in the surrounding environment. Seasonality is a key moderator of substrate availability, microbial activity and can shape community structures (Dumbrell et al., 2011; Sorensen et al., 2013 Slaughter et al., 2015). For example, seasonal effects were previously detected at the cut and removed site on soil Pi, microbial biomass C and PLFA profiles (Massey et al., 2015). It should be noted however that while Pi concentrations changed in the abovementioned study, they remained relatively low. Nonetheless, this highlights the need to undertake longer-term studies sampled across seasons, using techniques with similar levels of discrimination and coverage before we can inform future strategies for sustainable agriculture.

Insights into P cycling across a Pi fertilisation gradient in grazed and cut and removed grassland soils

The capacity for P mineralisation is a relatively broad function within soil microorganisms (Ragot et al., 2016), with genetic similarity in P mineralising genes observed across agricultural soils (Neal et al., 2017). One of the key enzymes involved in P mineralisation, phosphomonoesterase's activity typically decreases as Pi availability increases (Olander and Vitousek, 2000; Shi et al., 2013; Turner and Wright, 2014) and similar results were observed at both sites in the current study. The decrease in activity in soils with higher Pi concentrations most likely reflects more efficient microbial P uptake systems in P-depleted soil (Bergkemper et al., 2016a).

In contrast, copy numbers of *phoD* increased with Pi fertilisation and numbers were relatively similar between sites. The abundance of this gene has been shown to respond in a

508 similar manner to Pi fertilisation in other studies (Keith et al., 2012; Chhabra et al., 2013;
509 Tan et al., 2013; Fraser et al., 2015; Ragot et al., 2016). Although *phoD* is considered the
510 most abundant monophosphatase gene within soil and marine environments (Luo et al.,
511 2009; Neal et al., 2017) and has been used as a proxy for bacterial P mineralisation (Tan et
512 al., 2013; Fraser et al., 2015; Acuña et al., 2016; Ragot et al., 2016), it only provides partial
513 insight into microbial P mineralisation. The inclusion of additional P mineralising genes such
514 as *phoA* and *phoX* (Ragot et al., 2016) and a *phoD* primer set offering better coverage
515 (Bergkemper et al., 2016b) might have provided greater overview of this process. A
516 metatranscriptomic or a metaproteomic analysis targeting additional microbial P cycling
517 pathways would afford even greater insight.

518 The different response of a P cycling enzyme and the abundance of a gene encoding
519 a phosphatase likely reflects the fact that gene abundance is merely a measure of the
520 specific P cycling potential of the bacterial community, whereas the enzyme represents a
521 direct measure of more general microbial activity and/or the absence of a direct
522 relationship between the enzyme and gene measured. Despite differences in microbial
523 biomass and soil Pi concentrations between the grazed and cut sites, bacterial *phoD* copy
524 numbers and phosphomonoesterase activity were relatively similar in both sites. This
525 suggests bacterial *phoD* copy numbers were not solely related to microbial biomass, and
526 that P mineralisation may be an important mode of Pi mobilisation within reduced input
527 systems. In soils where organic matter inputs are reduced i.e. bare fallow, a dependence on
528 P mineralising exoenzymes has been detected, alongside increased phytate mineralisation
529 (a recalcitrant source of organic P) (Neal et al., 2017). Copy numbers of β -propeller phytases
530 involved in phytate mineralisation have also been documented to increase in reduced input

systems (Neal et al., 2017), and when soil Pi concentrations are low (Jorquera et al., 2013). It would be interesting to explore this further across our two sites.

Conclusions

At the grazed site, increasing long-term Pi fertilisation rates resulted in increased soil P concentrations, increased microbial biomass C and P, significant shifts in bacterial community structures and differences in the relative abundances of some bacterial genera. In contrast at the cut and removed site, microbial biomass (C, N and P) and bacterial community structures did not respond to long-term increases in Pi fertilisation and soil Pi concentrations only increased under the highest fertilisation rate (C-P30). Despite differences in soil P concentrations and microbial biomass between the two sites, the abundance of *phoD* increased with increasing soil Pi across both sites, while phosphomonoesterase activity decreased. The current study demonstrates the potential impacts intensive cutting and removal of vegetation may impose on Pi fertiliser effectiveness, both in terms of P accumulation and the bacterial community. The identification of bacterial genera that respond to different rates of Pi fertilisation in grazed soil provides the opportunity to further examine the role of these genera within terrestrial P cycling.

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Table 1

	Pi fertilisation rate (kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)					
	Grazed site			Cut and removed site		
	G-P0	G-P15	G-P30	C-P0	C-P15	C-P30
Sand (%)	51 (2) ^a	44 (5) ^a	53 (2) ^a	47 (1) ^A	45 (1) ^A	46 (1) ^A
Silt (%)	31 (1) ^a	32 (2) ^a	29 (2) ^a	32 (1) ^A	32 (3) ^A	30 (2) ^A
Clay (%)	18 (3) ^b	17 (1) ^b	18 (1) ^b	21 (1) ^A	23 (2) ^A	24 (2) ^A
pH	5.39 (0.03) ^a	5.77 (0.07) ^a	5.63 (0.02) ^a	5.64 (0.21) ^A	5.91 (0.11) ^A	5.86 (0.14) ^A
Water holding capacity (%)	53.00 (1.00) ^a	51.00 (1.00) ^a	51.00 (1.00) ^a	56.00 (1.0) ^A	53.00 (2.00) ^A	56.00 (1.00) ^A
Total C (g kg ⁻¹ DW soil)	43.80 (4.40) ^a	45.40 (17.10) ^a	46.10 (4.80) ^a	35.90 (2.0) ^A	37.90 (0.70) ^A	33.60 (0.50) ^A
DOC (mg kg ⁻¹ DW soil)	115.40 (7.48) ^a	105.41 (7.96) ^a	113.45 (1.64) ^a	82.06 (5.49) ^A	84.06 (1.48) ^A	80.56 (3.41) ^A
Total N (g kg ⁻¹ DW soil)	4.07 (0.44) ^a	4.47 (0.10) ^a	4.59 (0.41) ^a	3.48 (0.41) ^A	3.59(0.13) ^A	3.24 (0.50) ^A
DON (mg kg ⁻¹ DW soil)	55.72 (14.11) ^a	44.71 (5.11) ^a	48.26 (9.39) ^a	45.88 (5.311) ^A	47.38 (6.71) ^A	31.79 (1.36) ^A
NH ₄ ⁺ -N (mg kg ⁻¹ DW soil)	18.17 (8.58) ^a	9.47 (0.76) ^a	12.59 (3.23) ^a	11.82 (2.08) ^A	13.12 (1.78) ^A	11.29 (1.24) ^A
NO ₂ /NO ₃ ⁻ -N (mg kg ⁻¹ DW soil)	20.20 (2.88) ^a	16.11 (3.53) ^a	24.59 (9.55) ^a	9.67 (2.57) ^A	6.15(0.46) ^A	6.86 (1.12) ^A
Total P (P mg kg ⁻¹ DW soil)	437.50 (39.00) ^a	739.50 (64.50) ^b	842.80 (20.1) ^b	563.20 (16.9) ^A	608.9 (13.5) ^A	639.8 (29.30) ^A
Pi (P mg kg ⁻¹ DW soil)	3.13 (0.24) ^a	8.88 (1.06) ^{ab}	20.83(2.11) ^b	3.08 (0.14) ^A	2.67 (0.14) ^A	4.32 (0.34) ^B

Table 2

	Pi fertilisation (kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹)	Total genera (S)	Richness (d)	Shannon diversity (H' log^e)
Grazed site	P0	201 (26) ^a	44.12 (4.75) ^a	5.14 (0.13) ^a
	P15	190 (13) ^a	42.06 (2.67) ^a	5.09 (0.06) ^a
	P30	166 (15) ^a	37.81 (2.90) ^a	4.94 (0.09) ^a
Cut and removed site	P0	154 (12) ^A	35.68 (2.41) ^A	4.87 (0.08) ^A
	P15	150 (12) ^A	34.70 (2.31) ^A	4.84 (0.09) ^A
	P30	223 (65) ^A	48.78 (12.30) ^A	5.15 (0.25) ^A

Table 3

a) Grazed site

Genus/Genus-type group	Phylum	Relative abundance (%)			Mean relative abundance (%)
		G- P0	G-P15	G-P30	
Gp6	Acidobacteria	7.84 (1.54)^a	14.91 (1.47)^b	20.89 (0.37)^b	14.55
<i>Spartobacteria_genera_incertae_sedis</i>	Verrucomicrobia	8.45 (4.30) ^a	14.05 (1.46) ^a	16.90 (2.19) ^a	13.14
Gp16	Acidobacteria	7.10 (1.18)^a	12.13 (0.49)^{ab}	15.74 (0.60)^b	11.66
<i>Prevotella</i>	Bacteroidetes	0.06 (0.04) ^a	3.69 (3.64) ^a	12.07 (9.68) ^a	5.28
<i>Singulisphaera</i>	Planctomycetes	3.18 (1.66) ^a	5.03 (0.83) ^a	3.54 (1.44) ^a	3.92
<i>unclassified_Rhizobiales</i>	Proteobacteria	3.88 (1.91) ^a	4.05 (0.82) ^a	2.45 (0.77) ^a	3.46
<i>unclassified_Bacillaceae_1</i>	Firmicutes	3.39 (1.71) ^a	3.47 (0.59) ^a	2.55 (0.74) ^a	3.14
<i>unclassified_Actinobacteria</i>	Actinobacteria	3.11 (1.53)^a	3.50 (0.78)^{ab}	2.37 (0.69)^b	3.00
<i>unclassified_Planctomycetaceae</i>	Planctomycetes	2.06 (1.12) ^a	2.95 (0.52) ^a	2.32 (1.01) ^a	2.44
<i>unclassified_Bacillales</i>	Firmicutes	2.29 (1.14) ^a	2.69 (0.29) ^a	1.56 (0.48) ^a	2.18
<i>Bradyrhizobium</i>	Proteobacteria	3.63 (0.10)^a	0.67 (0.16)^b	0.30 (0.08)^b	2.09
<i>unclassified_Veillonellaceae</i>	Actinobacteria	0.09 (0.05) ^a	1.86 (1.80) ^a	3.33 (2.36) ^a	1.76
<i>unclassified_Prevotellaceae</i>	Firmicutes	0.04 (0.03) ^a	2.45 (2.49) ^a	2.48 (2.13) ^a	1.66
<i>unclassified_Acidimicrobiales</i>	Bacteroidetes	2.34 (0.07)^a	1.66 (0.34)^{ab}	0.88 (0.25)^b	1.63
<i>Gp5</i>	Acidobacteria	3.20 (3.09) ^a	0.08 (0.02) ^a	0.03 (0.01) ^a	1.10
<i>Sporosarcina</i>	Firmicutes	1.11 (0.59) ^a	1.20 (0.17) ^a	0.97 (0.33) ^a	1.09
<i>Acholeplasma</i>	Tenericutes	2.94 (1.27) ^a	0.00 (0.00) ^a	0.00 (0.00) ^a	0.98
<i>Gp7</i>	Acidobacteria	1.06 (0.53) ^a	1.03 (0.20) ^a	0.63 (0.21) ^a	0.91
<i>unclassified_Lachnospiraceae</i>	Firmicutes	0.08 (0.02) ^a	0.74 (0.67) ^a	1.90 (1.41) ^a	0.91
<i>unclassified_Opitutaceae</i>	Verrucomicrobia	2.72 (2.71) ^a	0.00 (0.00) ^a	0.00 (0.00) ^a	0.91
<i>3_genus_incertae_sedis</i>	Verrucomicrobia	0.99 (0.52) ^a	1.04 (0.17) ^a	0.66 (0.16) ^a	0.90
<i>Gp3</i>	Acidobacteria	1.29 (0.65) ^a	0.95 (0.21) ^a	0.25 (0.08) ^a	0.83
<i>Gp15</i>	Acidobacteria	2.43 (0.21) ^a	0.00 (0.00) ^a	0.00 (0.00) ^a	0.81
<i>Nitrospira</i>	Nitrospira	2.20 (2.06) ^a	0.13 (0.04) ^a	0.06 (0.02) ^a	0.80

b) Cut and removed site

Genus/Genus-type group	Phylum	Relative abundance (%)			Mean relative abundance (%)
		G- P0	G-P15	G-P30	
<i>Gp6</i>	Acidobacteria	19.22 (9.69) ^a	30.73 (4.73) ^a	11.73 (7.77) ^a	19.80
<i>Gp16</i>	Acidobacteria	11.62 (5.71) ^a	19.15 (3.08) ^a	8.19 (4.60) ^a	12.51
<i>Spartobacteria_genera_incertae_sedis</i>	Verrucomicrobia	7.51 (3.78) ^a	14.51 (1.22) ^a	9.20 (4.61) ^a	10.02
<i>unclassified_Actinobacteria</i>	Actinobacteria	2.87 (1.54) ^a	3.74 (0.75) ^a	3.13 (1.73) ^a	3.13
<i>unclassified_Rhizobiales</i>	Proteobacteria	2.24 (1.17) ^a	3.45 (0.49) ^a	3.72 (2.22) ^a	3.02
<i>Gp5</i>	Acidobacteria	4.92 (4.85) ^a	0.05 (0.03) ^a	4.16 (4.03) ^a	2.93
<i>Singulisphaera</i>	Planctomycetes	2.08 (1.05) ^a	4.10 (0.55) ^a	2.68 (1.34) ^a	2.85
<i>unclassified_Planctomycetaceae</i>	Planctomycetes	2.42 (1.30) ^a	4.04 (0.43) ^a	2.24 (1.12) ^a	2.79
<i>unclassified_Bacillaceae_1</i>	Firmicutes	1.79 (1.01) ^a	2.65 (0.45) ^a	2.32 (1.40) ^a	2.17
<i>unclassified_Bacillales</i>	Firmicutes	1.51 (0.92) ^a	2.87 (0.60) ^a	2.21 (1.41) ^a	2.12
<i>Acholeplasma</i>	Tenericutes	2.99 (1.29) ^a	0.00 (0.00) ^a	3.34 (3.21) ^a	2.03
<i>unclassified_Opitutaceae</i>	Verrucomicrobia	2.69 (1.64) ^a	0.01 (0.00) ^a	2.88 (2.29) ^a	1.79
<i>Gp15</i>	Acidobacteria	2.56 (2.01) ^a	0.02 (0.01) ^a	2.78 (1.85) ^a	1.72
<i>unclassified_Acidimicrobiales</i>	Actinobacteria	1.46 (0.36) ^a	1.31 (0.24) ^a	1.98 (0.38) ^a	1.53
<i>Nitrospira</i>	Nitrospira	1.63 (1.50) ^a	0.13 (0.03) ^a	1.90 (1.68) ^a	1.18
<i>3_genus_incertae_sedis</i>	Verrucomicrobia	0.92 (0.47) ^a	1.54 (1.54) ^a	1.05 (0.54) ^a	1.12
<i>Phycisphaera</i>	Planctomycetes	1.50 (1.05) ^a	0.00 (0.00) ^a	1.66 (0.31) ^a	1.01
<i>Gp17</i>	Acidobacteria	1.06 (0.55) ^a	1.57 (0.37) ^a	0.52 (0.34) ^a	1.01
<i>Holophaga</i>	Acidobacteria	1.34 (1.24) ^a	0.00 (0.00) ^a	1.70 (1.24) ^a	0.98
<i>Gp7</i>	Acidobacteria	0.73 (0.39) ^a	1.65 (0.42) ^a	0.53 (0.36) ^a	0.93
<i>Gp4</i>	Acidobacteria	0.90 (0.46) ^a	1.07 (0.06) ^a	0.58 (0.27) ^a	0.82
<i>Sporosarcina</i>	Firmicutes	0.56 (0.31) ^a	0.99 (0.22) ^a	0.75 (0.48) ^a	0.74
<i>unclassified_Actinomycetales</i>	Actinobacteria	0.55 (0.28) ^a	0.94 (0.17) ^a	0.78 (0.40) ^a	0.73
<i>Zavarzinella</i>	Planctomycetes	0.86 (0.53) ^a	0.40 (0.04) ^a	0.83 (0.55) ^a	0.67

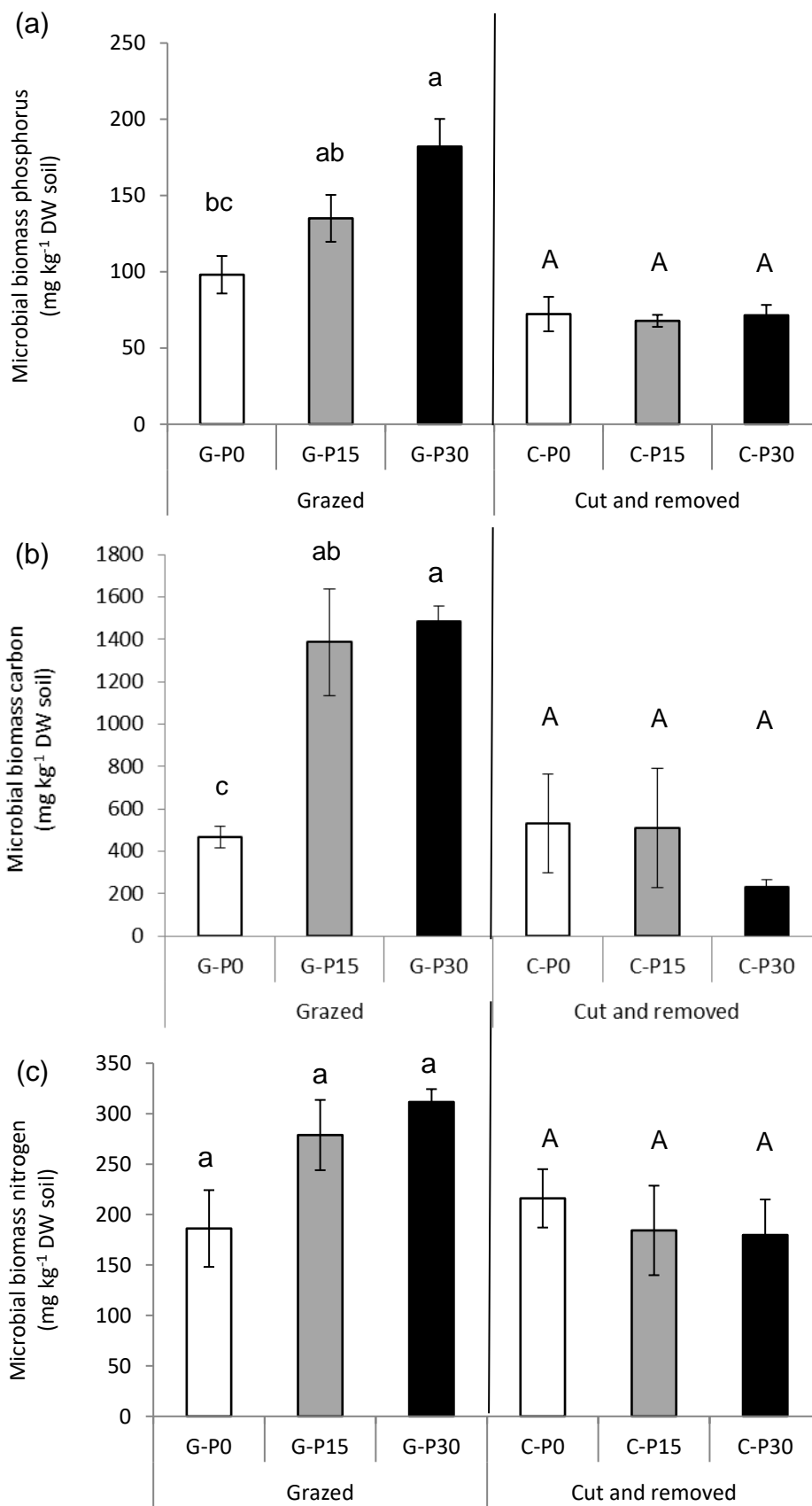


Fig 1

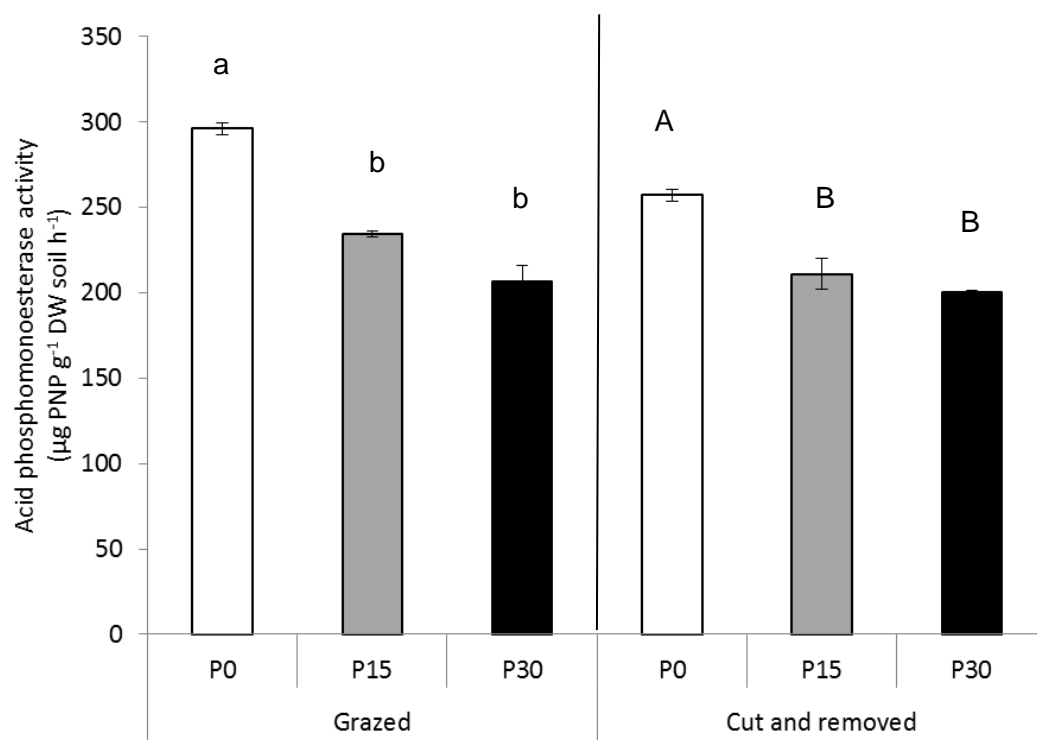


Fig 2

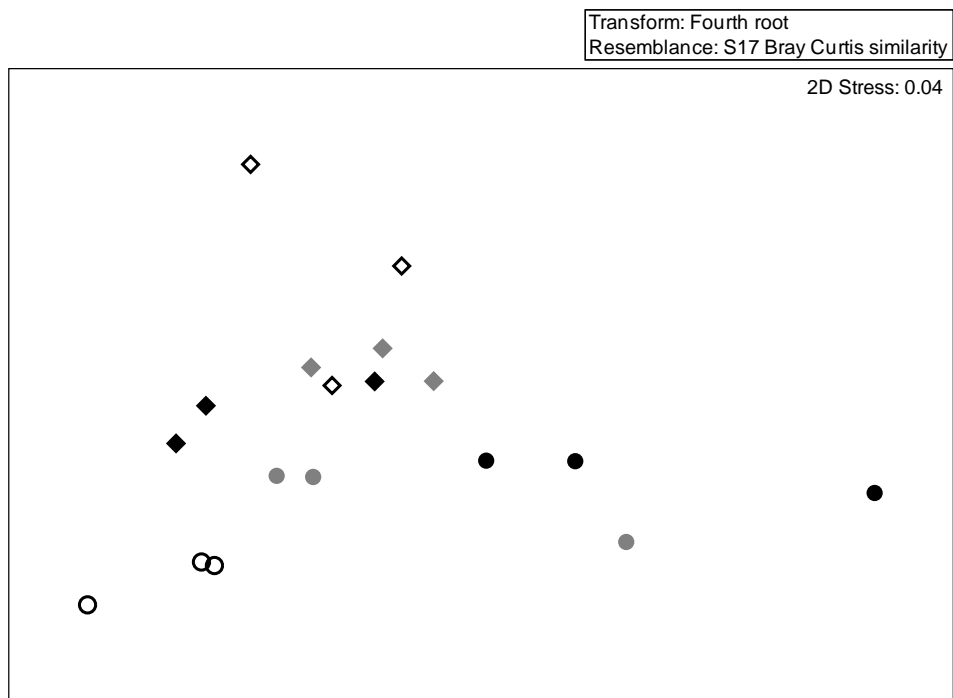


Fig 3

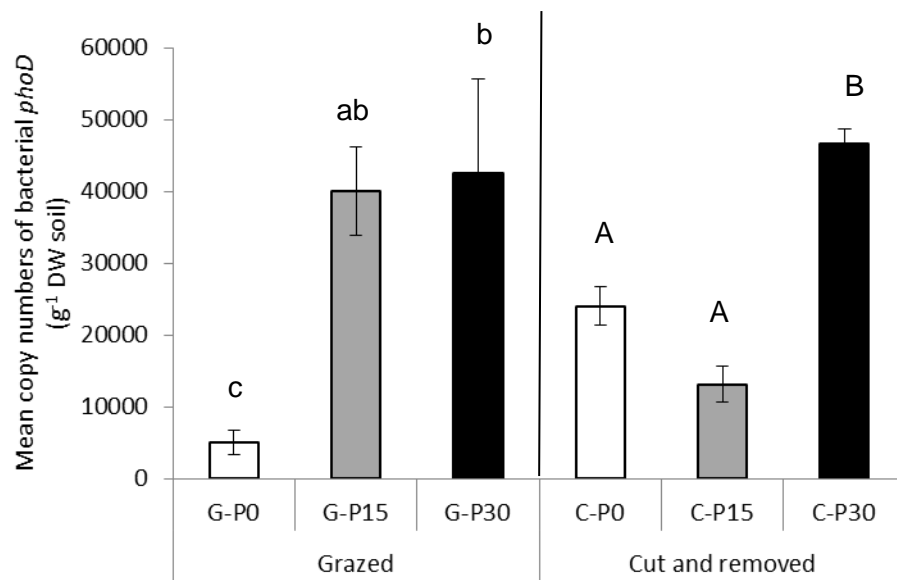


Fig 4

Table titles and figure legends

Table 1 Soil physicochemical parameters for soil at the grazed (G) and cut and removed (C) sites receiving long-term additions of 0 (P0), 15 (P15) or 30 (P30) kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ of inorganic phosphorus. Significant differences across rows are denoted by different letters (P<0.05). Lower case letters indicate differences across the grazed site. Capital letters indicate differences across the cut and removed site (p<0.05). Standard errors of the mean are shown in parentheses.

Table 2 Diversity measurements of soil bacterial OTUs classified at genus/genus-type level receiving long-term additions of 0 (P0), 15 (P15) or 30 (P30) kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ of inorganic phosphorus at the grazed and cut and removed grassland sites. DNA was extracted in triplicate from three plots for each application rate at each site. Data was generated using the DIVERSE function in PRIMER-E. Significant differences are denoted by different letters within columns (p<0.05). Lower case letters indicate differences across the grazed site, while capital letters indicate differences across the cut and removed site.

Table 3 Top 24 bacterial genera/genus-type based on mean relative abundances in a) plots at the grazed (G) site exposed to Pi fertilisation rates (G-0, G-15 and G-30 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and b) plots at the cut and removed (C) site exposed to inorganic phosphorus fertilisation rates (C-0, C-15 and C-30 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). Differences in letters within rows indicate significant differences in individual genera (p<0.05). Bacterial genera/genus-type exhibiting significant differences in relative abundance are highlighted in bold. Standard errors of the mean are shown in parentheses.

Fig 1 Mean (n=3) microbial biomass (a) phosphorous, (b) carbon and (c) nitrogen measured in plots receiving long-term inorganic phosphorus fertilisation at 0 (P0) (white bars), 15 (P15) (grey bars) or 30 (P30) (black bars) kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ across the grazed and cut and removed grassland sites. Error bars represent standard errors of the mean. Lower case letters indicate differences across the grazed site. Capital letters indicate differences across the cut and removed site (p<0.05).

Fig 2 Mean (n=3) acid phosphomonoesterase activity measured soil from triplicate plots receiving long-term inorganic phosphorus fertilisation at 0 (P0), 15 (P15) or 30 (P30) kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ across the grazed and cut and removed grassland sites. Error bars represent standard errors of the mean. Lower case letters indicate differences across the grazed site. Capital letters indicate differences across the cut and removed site (p<0.05).

Fig 3 NMDS plot visually representing bacterial community structures profiled using targeted amplicon sequencing of the bacterial *16S rRNA* gene in soil exposed to long-term differences in inorganic phosphorus fertilisation (n=3) at the grazed (G) site: unfertilised (G-P0) (white circles), 15 (G-P15) (grey circles) or 30 (G-P30) (black circles) kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ and at the cut and removed (C) site: unfertilised (C-P0) (white diamonds), 15 (C-P15) (grey diamonds) or 30 (C-P30) (black diamonds) kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹.

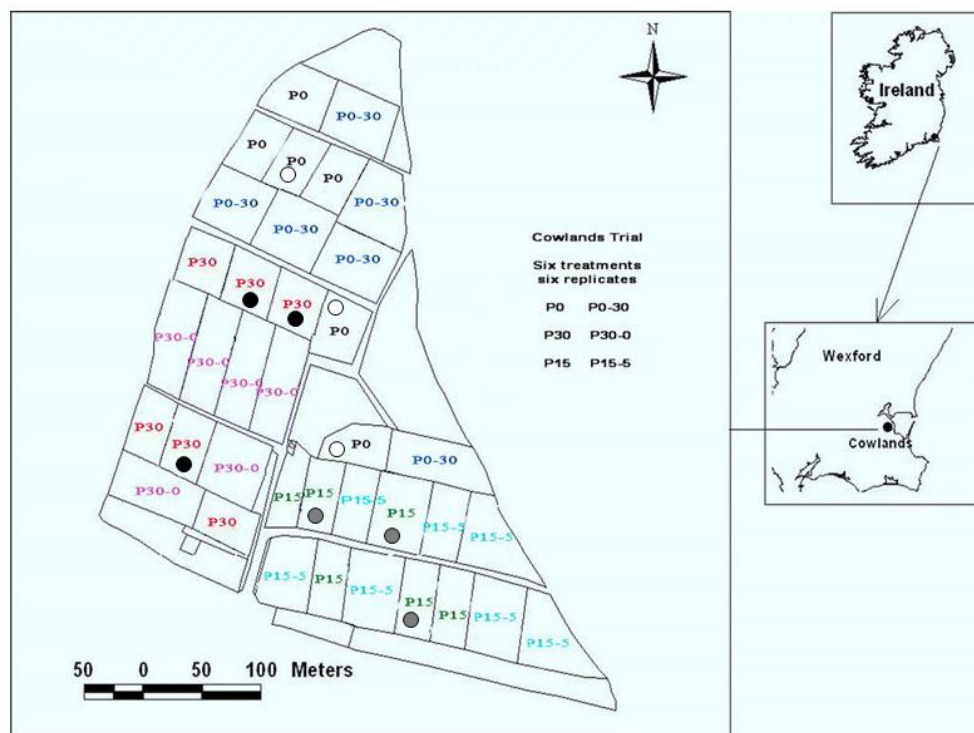
Fig 4 Mean (n=3) copy numbers of a bacterial alkaline phosphatase gene *phoD* from triplicate plots receiving long-term inorganic phosphorus fertilisation at 0 (P0), 15 (P15) or 30 (P30) kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ across the (a) grazed and (b) cut and removed grassland sites. Error bars represent standard errors of the mean. Lower case letters indicate differences across the grazed site. Capital letters indicate differences across the cut and removed site (p<0.05).

Supplementary material

SI Table 1

	LN NH ₄ ⁺	NO ₃ ⁻	Total C	Ki	Total N	Total P	Pi	LN pH	[†] MC	^{††} MB C:P	^{††} MB N:P	^{††} MB C:N	Soil C:N	Soil C:P	Soil N:P	DOC
LN NH ₄ ⁺																
NO ₃ ⁻	0.45															
Total C	0.16	0.38														
Ki	0.48	0.24	-0.11													
Total N	0.11	0.42	0.98	-0.16												
Total P	-0.11	0.28	0.37	-0.24	0.51											
Pi	-0.06	0.51	0.48	-0.22	0.58	0.80										
LN pH	-0.15	-0.51	-0.34	-0.26	-0.31	0.21	-0.10									
[†] MC	0.16	-0.26	-0.27	0.25	-0.31	0.06	-0.10	0.45								
^{††} MB C:P	-0.13	0.08	0.19	0.33	0.24	0.25	0.15	-0.29	0.07							
^{††} MB N:P	0.22	-0.38	-0.24	0.50	-0.24	-0.14	-0.36	0.23	0.66	0.34						
^{††} MB C:N	-0.26	0.44	0.45	-0.11	0.55	0.53	0.61	-0.32	0.04	0.49	-0.11					
Soil C:N	0.17	-0.20	0.01	0.19	-0.21	-0.62	-0.49	-0.05	0.18	-0.27	-0.03	-0.44				
Soil C:P	0.24	0.12	0.34	0.18	0.19	-0.72	-0.37	-0.53	-0.26	-0.17	-0.12	-0.17	0.63			
Soil N:P	0.23	0.15	0.38	0.16	0.25	-0.69	-0.34	-0.57	-0.31	-0.14	-0.12	-0.12	0.53	0.99		
DOC	0.16	0.72	0.74	-0.04	0.72	0.26	0.48	-0.57	-0.37	0.03	-0.54	0.53	0.01	0.36	0.39	
DON	0.71	0.67	0.42	0.29	0.38	-0.04	0.16	-0.32	0.07	0.06	0.04	0.12	0.11	0.42	0.44	0.40

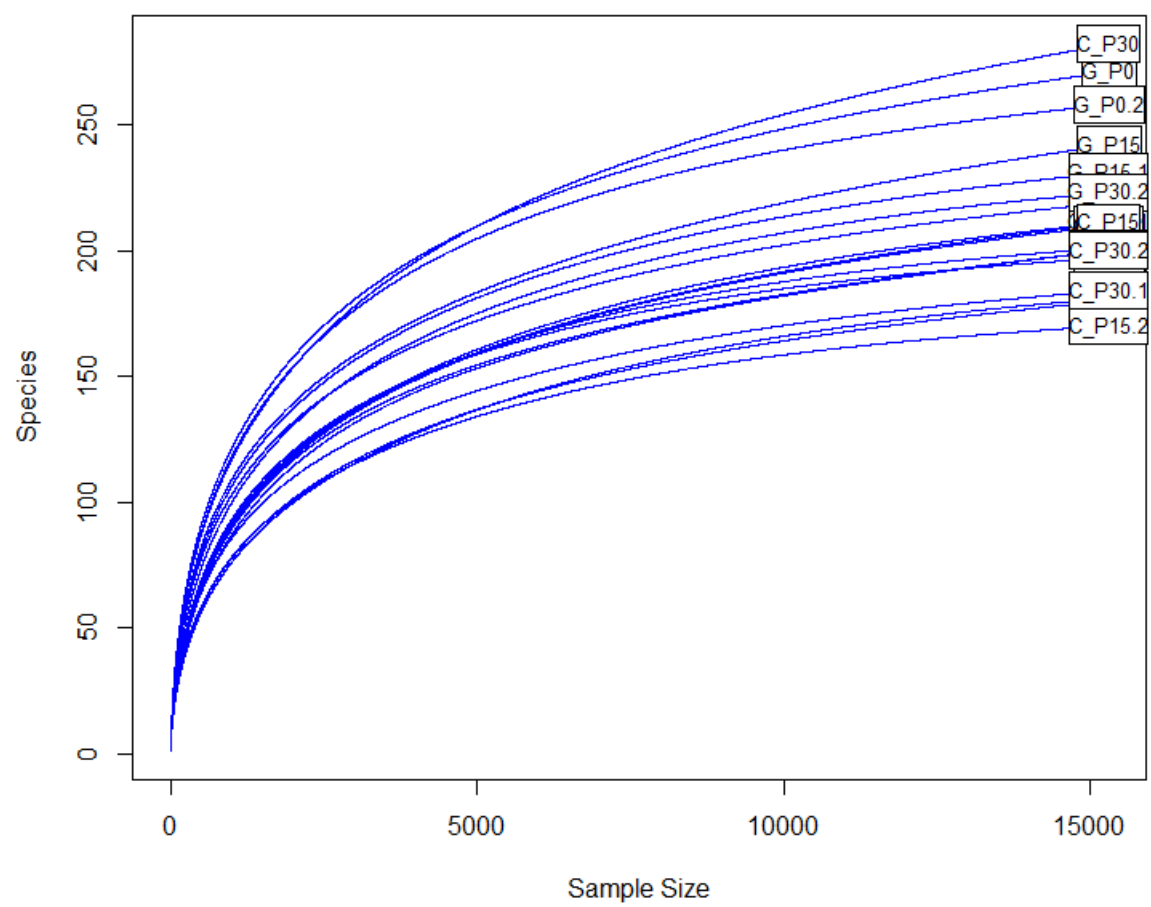
Figures



SI Fig 1

P30	P15	P45	P15
P45 ●	P0 ●	P0	P0 ●
P0	P30	P15 ○	P45 ○
P15 ○	P45 ●	P0 ●	P30 ●

SI Fig 2



SI Fig 3

Supplementary material table title and figure legends

SI Table 1 R^2 correlations between measured soil parameter generated in PRIMER-E. LN = log transformed variables. †MC = moisture content, ††microbial biomass, DOC = dissolved organic C; DON = dissolved organic N; Pi = available inorganic phosphorus. Values in bold indicate parameters which covary ($R^2 > 0.7$).

SI Fig 1 Adapted map of the grazed (G) site (Griffiths et al., 2012) detailing plot location and associated long-term inorganic phosphorus (Pi) fertilisation rates since establishment in 1968 and post 1999. Plots sampled are indicated by shapes; white circles indicate the unfertilised (G-P0) plots, grey circles indicate G-P15 plots and black circles indicate the G-P30 plots. Fertilisation rates represent 0, 15 or 30 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ of Pi.

SI Fig 2 Diagram of the experiment at the cut and removed (C) site detailing plot location and long-term inorganic phosphorus (Pi) fertilisation rates received since establishment in 1995. Fertilisation rates represent either 0 (C-P0) (white circles), 15 (C-P15) (grey circles), 30 (C-P30) (black circles) or 45 (P45) kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ of Pi. All plots from C-P0, C-P15 and C-P30 were sampled, but only those indicated by circles were used to equal that of the grazed site. P45 plots were not sampled.

SI Fig 3 Rarefaction curves showing the relationship between sampling intensity and the number of recovered sequences using an Illumina MiSeq sequencing platform for soil of triplicate plots receiving long-term Pi fertilisation at 0 (P0), 15 (P15) or 30 (P30) kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ across the grazed (G) and cut and removed (C) grassland sites.